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LINEARITY CONSTRAINT IN SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETING

Simultaneous interpreting is believed to be the most constrained type of translational activity. Constraints that distinguish simultaneous from other modes of interpreting (i.e. consecutive and liaison), and their written counterpart are manifold. The factors most often referred to in literature are: substantial temporal pressure and limited short-term or working memory capacity. Moreover, owing to virtual simultaneity of the input reception and output production, an interpreter's receiver and sender roles overlap in time. Another major problem is the lack of revision phase – an interpreter's output is always the first and the only draft of the text. Numerous accounts also stress the potentially adverse effects of the linearity constraint (e.g. Hatim and Mason 1997, Setton 1999), an issue we shall explore in the present paper. The discussion is set within the framework of Hatim and Mason's model of textuality domains in interpreting.

1. Introduction

The concept of the linearity of language has been extensively employed in linguistics to describe especially the surface structure¹ of any linguistic expression (Polański 1993:309). It is through the surface structure of the input that the interpreter can have access to the propositional content of the source-language speech. This aspect of text processing has been accounted for in Hatim and Mason's (1997) text-linguistic model of interpreting, in which they analyse simultaneous interpreting in terms of partial view of the texture and severely limited access to text structure.

Limited accessibility of text structure in SI has also been underlined in other accounts, ranging from normative writing (introductory textbooks – e.g. Jones 1998) to the models set within the framework of cognitive psychology (de Groot

¹ In contrast to the deep structure which cannot be fully described in terms of the linearity of language (Polański 1993:309).

1997, Tijus 1997) at the other end of the continuum. It is also accounted for in Gile's Effort Models (Gile 1995, 1997), and forms a part of Setton's (1999) approach. The Linearity Constraint, or a 'short horizon' constraint, as it is termed by Setton (1999:36), is considered to make the strongest demands on the interpreter in this particular mode.

The accounts that favour language-specificity of interpreting (e.g. Altman 1994; Gile 1995; Riccardi 1995, etc.) claim that language-specific factors might influence the accessibility of the micro-structure on the sentential level. Therefore, the present paper also includes a brief outline of the principal contrastive features of English and Polish that are believed to retard the interpreting process.

All those aspects of text linearity are recounted in the subsequent sections along with the strategies employed to offset the inherent restrictions.

2. Accessibility of texture, structure and context in simultaneous interpreting

In their model accounting for the textuality factors in interpreting, Hatim and Mason (1997) focus on both simultaneous and consecutive, contrasting each of them with liaison interpreting, which is given the status of the third mode in their approach².

The three domains of textuality constituting the core elements of Hatim and Mason's text linguistic approach are texture, structure and context. The notion of **texture** refers to "various devices used in establishing continuity of sense and thus making a sequence of sentences operational (i.e. both cohesive and coherent)" (Hatim & Mason 1997:36). The second of these notions, namely **structure** is described as the compositional plan of a text which "(...) otherwise would only be a disconnected sequence of sentences" (Hatim & Mason 1997:37,224).³ Finally, **context** is the extra-textual environment exerting a determining influence on language use through its three domains: register, intentionality and intertextuality (Hatim & Mason 1997:215).

Hatim and Mason (1997) maintain that each mode of interpreting focuses on a different domain of textuality. Their accessibility in simultaneous, consecutive and liaison interpreting is presented in Figure 1.1:

² Gentile's (1996) handbook "Liaison interpreting" presents the following classification of the interpreting modes: "There are two basic *modes* in which interpreting is performed, the first being *consecutive* interpreting and the second *simultaneous*. Each mode has at least two variants, which are used in liaison interpreting" (Gentile et al. 1996:22). He defines liaison interpreting as a type or genre of interpretation.

³ The term structure as used by Hatim and Mason appears to be equivalent to Van Dijk's **macro-structure** (1980, 1985). This term appears in many subsequent works on text linguistics (e.g. Duszak 1998, Bartmiński 1998, Tomlin et al. 2001).

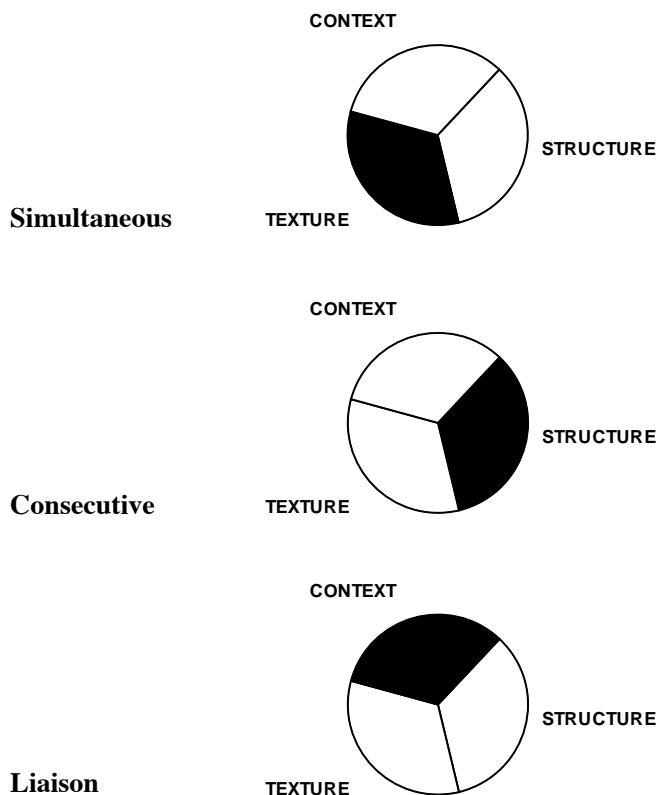


Figure 1.1: Accessibility of context, structure and texture
(Hatim & Mason 1997:43)

In simultaneous interpreting the input is presented to the interpreter in segments short enough to be accommodated in the maximum time lag (ear-voice span⁴) of no more than a few seconds. Owing to that only the most local information concerning the structure and context of the utterance is made available to the interpreter. Thus, having only a partial view of these two domains of textuality, the interpreter has to depend on the texture for comprehension, “(...) maintaining text connectivity through interacting with the various aspects of cohesion, theme-

⁴ The Ear Voice Span, also referred to as ‘lag’ or ‘delay’, can be defined as the time span elapsing between the reception of source input and its rendition in the output language (Setton 1999). This inherent aspect of simultaneous interpreting performance is subject to a number of factors including language combination, target-language speech features, both speaker’s and interpreter’s performance, and the interpreter’s idiosyncratic preferences (cf. Gumul 2005, 2006).

rheme progression, etc.” (Hatim & Mason 1997:59). It is only via texture that s/he can gain access to structure and context.

The example presented below shows how partial view of the structure makes it difficult for a simultaneous interpreter to render a sequence of temporal sequential markers in a consistent manner:

(1)

Source text:

(a) **first of all** / we applied ourselves to identifying the root causes of our national ailments / examining contemporary evidence / and refusing to be slaves to outmoded doctrinaire beliefs / (b) **secondly** / we embarked on a reasoned policy to ensure steady economic growth / the modernisation of industry / and a proper balance between public and private expenditure / (c) **thirdly** / by refusing to take refuge / as the previous government had continually done in the preceding years / in panic-stricken stop-gap measures / we stimulated the return of international confidence⁵

Target text⁶:

(a) chcieliśmy zidentyfikować powody tych wszystkich problemów / badaliśmy / te wszystkie dane / i zrezygnowaliśmy z podążania za przestarzałymi regułami / zastosowaliśmy (b) **także** / rozsądną politykę by zapewnić rozsądny wzrost / także wprowadziliśmy równowagę między prywatnymi a publicznymi wydatkami / (c) **po trzecie** odmawiając / uchylania się / jak to robił poprzedni rząd // zapewniliśmy powrót międzynarodowego zaufania

By contrast, the consecutive interpreter receives the source-language text as a whole or in portions of at least a few sentences each constituting a ‘micro’ text. Having to operate on considerably long strings of discourse, interpreters working in this mode tend to rely on text structure for its retention and processing. Due to an extra memory load, especially the texture-related information is too detailed for the interpreter to retain it easily. Therefore, texture and context can only be retained „in a most short-lived manner and can thus be stored more effectively via structure” (Hatim & Mason 1997:42, 49).

The third mode accounted for in Hatim and Mason’s model, the liaison interpreting, consists in rendering „exchanges between interlocutors which produce a resolution of some problem or lead to a decision” (Gentile et al. 1996:18). Given the features of this communication act, the interpreter has limited access to texture and structure. Therefore s/he is forced to take recourse in the only available textuality indicator, namely context.

⁵ Apart from capitalized proper names, only lower case letters have been used in the transcription of interpreting outputs and source texts. There is no punctuation. The transcriptions have, however, been marked for pauses within the respective utterances, where a single slash (/) denotes a short pause, and a double slash (//) denotes a long pause (over 4 seconds).

⁶ All examples come from the interpreting outputs of the 3rd, 4th and 5th year students of translation and interpreting programme (University of Silesia). The target texts have been recorded between 2002 and 2010.

Bearing in mind the differences in the availability of textuality between individual modes, Hatim and Mason contend that regardless of the mode, texture can be regarded as a privileged category. It is most prominent in SI, but it is also of assistance in CI and liaison, assisting in retrieving structure in the former one, and context in the latter.

However, as shown in the subsequent example, relying excessively on texture in SI can lead to transcoding, i.e. word-for-word translation (cf. Gumul 2004):

(2)

Source text:

now in my lecture / I hope to / demonstrate in detail / that this state of affairs / this double focus as we might call it / was of crucial importance / for the subsequent growth of London as a city / and that it had moreover / a decisive influence / on the architecture / associated with the city // (...)

Target text:

teraz podczas mojego wykładu / mam nadzieję że / zademonstruję w szczegó / w szczegółach że to podwójne skupienie / było bardzo ważne dla / dla późniejszego rozwoju miasta / Londynu jako miasta / i że miało / co więcej / miało bardzo ważny wpływ na jego architekturę / która jest oczywiście związana z miastem / (...)

3. Macro- and micro-structure of the text

Hatim and Mason's idea of limited access to structure in SI is also reflected in a number of other approaches. According to Jones (1998), the process of simultaneous interpreting is intrinsically impeded by the so-called intellectual difficulty, which refers to speech-processing difficulties on both macro- and micro-level (Jones 1998:72). A macro-structure of a speech "finds its way into sentences (...) at the time of speaking" and "can correspond either to a minimal summary of the speech, or to some message the speaker wants to deliver" (Tijus 1997:31). It is made explicit in Hatim and Mason's approach that a simultaneous interpreter has only a partial view of the overall structure of the source-language text. Owing to that s/he has no way of knowing where the speech is headed. What impedes the interpreting process even more is the fact that in most cases the interpreter has to embark on rendering a sentence before it is completed. Considering the average length of EVS⁷, even at the sentential level, the so-called micro-level of the speech, rarely does the interpreter benefit from hearing the sentence in its entirety. The following text segments and retrospective comments of interpreting trainees illustrate this problem:

⁷ According to different studies the EVS can range from 2 to a maximum of 10 seconds (Kopczyński 1980:20). The average time lag is no longer than 6 seconds, and can be as short as 2 (Niska 1999).

(3)

Source text:

(...) chcę raz jeszcze powiedzieć że w tej sytuacji / w tym momencie w jakim jesteśmy bezpośredniego zagrożenia dla Polski / dla mieszkańców naszego kraju nie ma / ale powtarzam to o czym mówiłem 11 września / czujność jest niezbędna / przepływ informacji i dobra łączność jest również konieczna (...)

Target text:

(...) I want to say once again that in this situation / this moment / the moment of danger for Poland and for our citizens // there is no such danger but our readiness is necessary / and also good connection / is also very needed (...)

Retrospective comment:

Na początku błędnie to rozumiałam ponieważ nie poczekałam na resztę zdania. Dlatego też zaczęłam tłumaczyć *the moment of danger for Poland* tak jakby to zagrożenie było za chwilę. Musiałam się szybko poprawić bo tak naprawdę chodziło o to, że tego zagrożenia jeszcze nie ma.

(4)

Source text:

(...) nasz głos musi być słyszany i obecny / zbierając się w Warszawie wysyłamy światu wiadomość o naszej gotowości / jestem też pewien że zastanowimy się też jak leczyć przyczyny / jak usuwać źródła międzynarodowego terroryzmu / walka z nim to zadanie na długie lata / i taka też / dalekowzroczna / powinna być perspektywa przedsięwzięć (...)

Target text:

(...) our voice should be heard / and this conference has this aim / gathering here in Warsaw / we send the world a message that we are ready / I'm sure that we will ponder / and discuss / how to erase this plague which is terrorism / and it's a long-term action (...)

Retrospective comment:

W tym fragmencie sądziłam najpierw, że chodzi o ogólną zadumę, zastanowienie się nad tymi problemami, więc powiedziałam *ponder*. Natomiast byłam zmuszona dodać *discuss*, gdyż potem z kontekstu wynikało, że *ponder* tutaj nie pasuje.

(5)

Retrospective comment:

Trochę niefortunnie zaczęłam zdanie, więc wolałam je skończyć niż urwać. Dopowiedziałam sobie nieco treści.

(6)

Retrospective comment:

Zasugerowałam się pierwszą częścią zdania i dlatego użyłam tego słowa.

Given the permanent presence of the linearity constraint in simultaneous interpreting, it has been contended by Tijus (1997:32) that the major obstacle in SI is the one of having to grasp the structure through inductive inferencing. The need to formulate output on the basis of partial meanings has been also emphasised by Setton (1999:21).

4. Language-specific factors in interpreting

The significance of the source and target languages typology in simultaneous interpreting has been the subject of much debate in the interpreting research community. The two paradigms that have developed conflicting attitudes are the Paris School (the interpretive theory) and the information-processing theory. The proponents of the former one (Seleskovich 1975, 1978, Lederer 1978, 1981, Seleskovich & Lederer 1986, 1989) claim language-independence of interpreting. In contrast, Gile's Effort Models (1995, 1997), set within the framework of the latter, acknowledge that syntactic differences between source and target languages have impact on source-language rendition. Other authors holding this view include among others Altman (1994), Goldman-Eisler (1972), Ilg (1978), Kirchhoff (1976), Riccardi (1995), Setton (1999), Van Besien (1999), and Wills (1978).

Gile (1997) makes a direct link between language specificity and processing capacity requirements. He contends that "syntactic differences that force interpreters to wait longer before starting to formulate their target-language speech tend to increase the load on the memory effort" (Gile 1997:209). He also believes that "the intrinsic requirements of specific languages" might tax the listening effort and the production effort.

The drawbacks of syntactic differences between SL and TL texts have also been observed by Kirchhoff (1976), who believes that "in the case of structurally divergent languages, syntax is of decisive importance for the choice of processing strategy" (...) as "proceeding with TL production before syntactic disambiguation involves a high probability risk" (Kirchhoff 1976:113).

The language-specific factor that has generated a wealth of SI literature is the word order in German. Its left-branching structures (SOV) pose considerable difficulties for interpreters working from this language (Setton 1999:50). Although this syntactic pattern is not encountered in English-Polish combination, there are nevertheless substantial discrepancies between these two languages in terms of surface structure word order. The most apparent one is that in English the syntactic function of a noun phrase is marked by its position in a sentence, whereas in Polish the position of a noun phrase does not have a distinctive function in this respect. These are the case endings that mark the syntactic function of a given noun phrase (Fisiak et al. 1978:36).

This structural difference might prove to be an obstacle when working into English, due to its relatively fixed word order⁸. It should not, however, constitute a

⁸ The statement that English word order is fixed, whereas the Polish one is free is a common misconception. In fact, a more detailed contrastive analysis of these two languages shows that "neither is Polish word order entirely free nor is English word order entirely fixed" (Fisiak et al. 1978:37). A similar view is expressed by Kubiński (1999) who emphasises that "English word order is relatively more constrained than word ordering in Polish" (Kubiński 1999:77). Thus, the statement used in the present paper merely serves to show certain tendencies of the surface structure in both languages, without going into much detail.

major obstacle when the target language is Polish, since its syntactic rules allow for juxtaposition of elements within a sentence to a far larger extent than in English.

Word order, however, is not the only dimension in which these two languages differ. There is another feature of the Polish language that might impede preserving text linearity. Unlike in English, where only pronouns are marked for gender, in Polish also nouns, verbs and adjectives take gender endings. The example number 6 below illustrates the point. The second occurrence of the word *consequences* is preceded by a few lexical items. Thus, if the interpreter does not keep sufficient EVS, s/he may embark on a sentence giving the verb *być* a neutral gender ending (*było*) whereas the Polish equivalent of “consequences” – *konsekwencje*, is feminine. The same happens with *first*, which should also be accorded in terms of gender with the noun *consequences*:

(7)

Source text:

(...) well / **the first consequence** I suppose / is that the importance of the river itself / was increased // obviously / the river / was from the / from the beginning / vitally important / as the link with the outside world / the route followed by almost all traffic / with the Continent / but in addition to this / it was also in the first place / the most important means of communication between the town centred on the Roman fort / which subsequently grew into the city of London / the city of trade / and of the Merchant Guilds / and the other town / focused on the Abbey / the Royal City of Westminster **that was the first and in many ways the most vital consequence** of the double centre / as we've called it // (...)

Target text 1:

(...) [EVS = 0,8 s.] było to pierwsze i / w / wielu aspektach najważniejsze / najważniejsza konsekwencja / (...)

Target text 2:

(...) [EVS = 0,6 s.] to było pierwsze i najważniejsza konsekwencja (...)

This fragment of the source text shows that the word *consequence* has already appeared in the text. There is in fact an explicit reference made to it in the preceding part of the text. However, it would be difficult to retrieve it due to the considerable distance between these two occurrences of these lexical items. In fact, all the other subjects that rendered it correctly, managed to achieve it by prolonging the EVS (cf. Gumul 2007).

5. Strategies for coping with the linearity constraint

Setton (1999:50ff) distinguishes four major strategies employed to counteract limited accessibility of input structure as well as structural asymmetries between source and target languages. Frequent references to these strategies can also be found in other works. However, terms tend to vary widely, as virtually every approach labels the individual strategies in a different way.

The first one is simply referred to as **waiting** (Setton 1999:50), or, in other words, **delaying the response** (Gile 1995:192). The strategy in question amounts to prolonging EVS while awaiting forthcoming input.

The second strategy, or rather a group of strategies, involves either delaying output by slowing delivery, described as **stalling**, or uttering non-committal material contributing no new information, labelled as **padding** (Kirchhoff 1976:116, Setton 1999:50). The following examples illustrate the latter one:

(8)

Source text:

(...) walka toczy się także o to aby zwykły obywatel mógł dokonywać samodzielnego wyboru własnej drogi życia (...)

Target text:

(...) the fight is about / the rights of / every human / the rights of an ordinary citizen to make his own choices (...)

Retrospective comment:

Dodałam tam pewne sformułowanie którego właściwie nie było, ponieważ wynikało to z innej składni w języku polskim i języku angielskim. Zaczęłam to zdanie *the fight is about* i brakowało mi później, musiałam poczekać aż usłyszę resztę zdania, ale w międzyczasie powiedziałam *the fight is about rights of every human*.

(9)

Source text:

(...) nie wolno nam zapomnieć że działalność terrorystów znajduje aprobatę społeczną głównie w tych krajach i środowiskach gdzie ludzie są biedni i pozbawieni nadziei (...)

Target text:

(...) we can't forget that the activity of the terrorist is supported among the people who are poor / desolate and deprived of hope (...)

Retrospective comment:

Obawiam się, że w tekście źródłowym nie było nic co można by przetłumaczyć jako *desolate*. Jednak starałam się jakoś sparafrazować ostatnią myśl żeby nie utracić płynności wypowiedzi.

(10)

Retrospective comment:

Ten fragment (*to support the USA*) został przeze mnie dodany. Było to podyktowane potrzebą dokończenia zdania i uczynienia go logicznym.

The third tactic of **chunking** (Setton 1999:50, Riccardi 1998:178, Yagi 2000:523) or in other words **pre-emptive segmentation of the input** (Setton 1999:50) corresponds to Gile's (1995:195ff), Goldman-Eisler's (1972) and Kirchhoff's (1976:114) **segmentation** or to some extent to Jones's (1998:100ff) **salamitechnique**. The other equivalent terms cited by Setton include **saucissonnage** (Ilg 1978) and **preserving linearity** (Zhong 1984, cited in Setton 1999).

Finally, Setton (1999:52) refers to **anticipation**. This particular strategy has generated a wealth of SI literature, including Adamowicz (1989), Gile (1995), de Groot (1997), Hatim and Mason (1997), Kirchhoff (1976), Kohn and Kalina (1996), Lederer (1978, 1981), Riccardi (1995), Setton (1999), Van Besien (1999), and Wills (1978).

The last two strategies, namely segmentation and anticipation clearly involve more complex operations than waiting, stalling or padding. Therefore two subsequent sections are devoted to them.

5.1. Segmentation

One of the earliest studies addressing the problem of segmentation in SI is that of Goldman-Eisler (1972). She distinguishes three ways of input segmentation, their deployment depending not only on the rate of the input, the nature of the message, and the interpreter's preferences either for storing or anticipating, but also on the structural differences between the source and target languages:

identity: encoding the chunks of speech as uttered in the source,

fission: starting to encode before the chunk in the input has come to a halt,

fusion: storing two or more input chunks and then encoding (Goldman-Eisler 1972:72ff).

Out of these three methods of source-language text segmentation, the one referred to as fission appears to correspond roughly to what is generally recognised in interpreting literature as the strategy of segmentation.

There is a general consensus in SI literature that segmentation is primarily a preventive tactic (Gile 1995:194, Setton⁹ 1999:186, Yagi 2000:523) employed when faced with potential problems. One of them is the syntactic discrepancy between the source and target languages. When faced with SL-TL syntactic asymmetry (Setton 1999:186) or simply syntactic structures of considerable complexity (Jones 1998:102), the interpreter might resort to reformulating the already available segment or producing neutral sentence beginnings (Gile 1995:196).

References to the strategy of segmentation can also be traced in Kohn and Kalina's (1996) account of interpreting strategies. They mention two kinds of what they label as surface operations. The first type of operation involves producing small and comparatively independent discourse chunks which are identified and processed separately. This strategy often entails linguistic simplification, including sentence splitting, paraphrasing and restructuring (examples 11 and 12). The other one consists in selecting linguistic open gambit forms "which leave the largest possible number of options for continuation and correction" (Kohn & Kalina 1996:130).

⁹ Setton uses the term **pre-emptive segmentation** to refer to the same feature (Setton 1999:186).

(11)

Dla ułatwienia tłumaczenia, rozbiłam zdanie na mniejsze części.

(12)

Miałam problemy w polskiej wersji z użyciem słów *na płaszczyźnie militarnej i wywiadowczej*. Zwrot ten wydał mi się skomplikowany, dlatego rozbiłam to na dwie części, używając prostszego sformułowania „when it comes to intelligence” i „when it comes to military acts”.

Failure to adopt the preventive strategy of segmentation often leads to inconsistent rendition of the source text:

(13)

Zanim doszłam do końca zdania zapomniałam jego początku, chciałam jakoś zakończyć, więc wstawiłam coś o czym Giuliani wcale nie mówił.

(14)

Wycofałam się później z tego wyrażenia, ponieważ po wysłuchaniu dalszej części zdania już mi tu nie pasowało.

It is worth noting that in terms of processing capacity requirements, the strategy of segmentation is claimed to reduce short-term memory load (Gile 1995:196; Riccardi 1998:178).

5.2. Anticipation¹⁰

As has been already pointed out, one of the major difficulties encountered in simultaneous interpreting is that the interpreter is forced to take frequent recourse in inductive inferencing (Tijus 1997:32). In other words s/he has to anticipate the upcoming input.

It has been stressed by Kohn and Kalina (1996:124) that anticipation is “a fundamental feature of strategic discourse processing”, enabling the listener to predict what the speaker is going to say. However, the strategy of anticipation acquires a wider dimension in interpreting, where, as Kohn and Kalina (1996:130) point out, there is a need to anticipate strategically. This strategic anticipation or early anticipation is based on “far less information than would be considered sufficient in monolingual communication”.

According to Tryuk (2007:127), anticipation is a main strategy adopted by simultaneous interpreters regardless of the language pair and direction of translation. Van Besien (1999) defines anticipation in SI as “production of a constituent

¹⁰ Anticipation has been extensively discussed in the works of Bartłomiejczyk (2008), Laskowska (2006), and Tryuk (2007).

(a word or a group of words) in the target language before the speaker has uttered the corresponding constituent in the source language” (Van Besien 1999:250). This kind of anticipation is referred to by Van Besien as pure anticipation, in contrast to identified by Lederer (1981:253) freewheeling interpretation¹¹ (*l'interprétation “en roue libre”*). This type of anticipation amounts to producing a target-language segment after the corresponding source-language segment has been uttered, “but so soon afterwards and at so correct a place in his own language that there is no doubt the interpreter summoned it before hearing the original” (Lederer 1978:139).

However, no matter how plausible these hypotheses about the incoming segment might be, whether they are pure anticipation or freewheeling interpretation, they are still tentative (Hatim & Mason 1997:45). There are obviously a number of factors that minimise the risk of making false assumptions. One of them is the probabilistic nature of speech comprehension (Chernov 1979, Dźwierzynska 2001, Gile 1995), presuming the existence of highly differentiated probabilities governing the word order both in terms of structure (syntactic patterns) and lexis (collocations, fixed phrases, idioms). The retrospective comments presented below illustrate this process:

(15)

Retrospective comment:

Usłyszałam słowo *kondolencje* w tekście oryginalnym, ale nie usłyszałam słowa *składać* w języku angielskim, lecz połączyłam sobie jako kolokację składać *kondolencje*, więc właśnie tak przetłumaczyłam choć nie usłyszałam słowa *składać*.

(16)

Retrospective comment:

Zanim Bush dokończył ten zwrot chciałam go wyprzedzić i powiedzieć *albo jesteście z nami*, *albo przeciwko nam*. Tutaj na szczęście decyzja moja była taka żeby tego nie dopowiedzieć, i dobrze, ponieważ on powiedział *albo jesteście z terrorystami*. Ale często właśnie próbuję wyprzedzić mówcę, zwłaszcza jeśli są to jakieś utarte zwroty. Często wybiegam do przodu.

Although in example number 16 the anticipated segment was not verbalised, the interpreter's words clearly show the process of inferring the content at the sentential level.

Considering the role of the probabilistic nature of syntactic patterns and lexis, it can be inferred that proficiency in the source language is a vital prerequisite for successful anticipation. The mastery of transitional probabilities is of paramount importance especially in terms of processing capacity requirements. High level of linguistic proficiency reduces processing capacity requirements of the listening and analysis effort, making it possible to allocate the remaining part to two

¹¹ Van Besien's translation of the term (1999:251).

other competing efforts of production effort and short-term memory effort (Gile 1995:177).

As stressed by Jones (1998:118), linguistic anticipation is an invaluable tool when the process of interpreting involves the languages differing in terms of syntactic structure. Thus, this strategy is frequently employed to overcome language-specific problems.

Another feature of language increasing the predictability of the incoming message, and thus facilitating anticipation, is the inherent redundancy of all natural languages (Chernov 1979:99). Redundant elements (e.g. recurring lexical items, synonymous expressions, rhetorical questions, etc.) are the determinant factors triggering anticipation mechanisms, since they reduce the indeterminacy of the utterance (Dźwierzynska 2001:67).

The interpreter's chances of successful anticipation increase as the target-language text unfolds. At the early stages of input encoding, the amount of information concerning the performance characteristics of the speaker and the subject matter available to the interpreter may not be sufficient to anticipate correctly (Kirchhoff 1976:115) as reported in the following retrospective comments:

(17)

Retrospective comment:

W kolejnym fragmencie musiałam zgadywać z kim toczyła się rozmowa Aleksandra Kwaśniewskiego. Zgadywałam że z *Minister of Defence*. Niestety był to pan wiceprezydent, potem było za późno na poprawę.

(18)

Retrospective comment:

Tym którzy stracili swoich bliskich – dodana fraza. Bardziej przetłumaczyłam to co spodziewałam się usłyszeć, niż to co autentycznie było w oryginale.

Information concerning the performance characteristics of the speaker and the subject matter as factors facilitating anticipation are clearly beyond the domain of strictly linguistic features of the discourse. Thus, as emphasised by Kirchhoff (1976:115), „the construction of expectations depends on linguistic and extra-linguistic determinants”. The feasibility of forming assumptions about the upcoming input on the basis of extralinguistic knowledge in interpreting and communication in general is underscored in a number of approaches (Chernov 1979, Dźwierzynska 2001:69, de Groot 1997:46, Kohn & Kalina 1996:130; Tryuk 2007, Laskowska 2006). It must be stressed that in order to ensure successful anticipation, a certain degree of extra-linguistic knowledge concerning the conference situation, the subject and possibly the speaker, should be available to the interpreter prior to the interpreting event (Gile 1995:178).

The last two retrospective comments show how the semantic components of the source text interfere with the interpreters' prior knowledge resulting in unsuccessful anticipation:

(19)

Retrospective comment:

Odnosnie siły modlitwy, tutaj od razu nasunął mi się Bóg, i również miałam w pamięci wcześniejsze przemówienia Busha, który zawsze mówi na końcu *God bless America*. I po prostu pojawił mi się Bóg, chociaż nie było tego w oryginale. Teraz to słyszę. No i oczywiście troszeczkę to zmieniło sens, niemniej jednak myślę, że nie jest to takim wielkim błędem, bo skoro modlitwa, to można powiedzieć, że wiąże się z Bogiem. I to tak nasuwa się automatycznie.

(20)

Retrospective comment:

W moim tłumaczeniu wkradło się słowo *freedom*. Wyobraziłam sobie całą część Europy Środkowej i Wschodniej i przypomniały mi się czasy wyzwolenia z jarzma komunizmu i dlatego znalazło się tam słowo wolność.

6. Conclusions

The extracts from the outputs of interpreting trainees and their retrospective comments indicate that the simultaneous mode is substantially affected by the linearity constraint. Limited access to structure and partial view of the texture impedes the interpreter's task to no lesser degree than the time constraint and the load on short term memory, both of which are inherent in SI. This brief presentation of the problems with preserving text linearity might also offer some implications for the interpreter training process. It appears that raising students' awareness of the available preventive strategies should be treated as an essential component of the didactic process.

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